

# Detecting adaptive evolution based on association with ecological gradients: Orientation matters!

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## Abstract

Population genetic signatures of local adaptation are frequently investigated by identifying loci with allele frequencies that exhibit high correlation with ecological variables. One difficulty with this approach is that ecological associations might be confounded by geographic variation at selectively neutral loci. Here we consider populations that underwent spatial expansion from their original range, and for which geographical variation of adaptive allele frequency coincides with habitat gradients. Using range expansion simulations, we asked whether our ability to detect genomic regions involved in adaptation could be impacted by the orientation of the ecological gradients. For three ecological association methods tested, we found, counter-intuitively, fewer false positive associations when ecological gradients aligned along the main axis of expansion than when they aligned along any other direction. This result has important consequences for the analysis of genomic data under non-equilibrium population genetic models. Alignment of gradients with expansion axes is likely to be common in scenarios in which expanding species track their ecological niche during climate change while adapting to changing environments at their rear edge.

**Keywords:** Ecological association methods, Local adaptation, Range expansions, Ecological gradients, Genome scans.

## 20 **Detecting adaptive genetic responses using eco-** 21 **logical gradients**

22 The fossil record is replete with examples of species modifying their geographical  
23 distributions following environmental change (Blois & Hadly 2009, Comes &  
24 Kadereit 1998). Based on evidence from the past, range shifts are commonly  
25 viewed as an expected response of species to climate change (Parmesan & Yohe  
26 2003). In addition to range modifications, changing conditions and natural  
27 selection can also trigger genetic modifications allowing species to adapt to new  
28 local environments encountered during migration (Davis & Shaw 2001, Davis  
29 et al. 2005, Jump & Penuelas 2005). Under these conditions, researchers have  
30 suggested that gene frequencies may change gradually as natural selection acts  
31 on standing genetic variation or new mutations to favor adaptive phenotypes  
32 (Hermisson & Pennings 2005, Hancock et al. 2010, Pritchard et al. 2010).  
33 In addition, natural selection may cause shifts in allele frequency at multiple  
34 genetic loci simultaneously, leaving subtle signatures of adaptive genetic change  
35 (Vitti et al. 2013).

36 Detecting gradual parallel genetic change is a difficult challenge (Pritchard  
37 et al. 2010), and range expansion scenarios may complicate the identification  
38 of adaptive alleles among selectively neutral polymorphisms. Range expansions  
39 can generate extreme genetic drift in the direction of colonization, driving allele  
40 frequencies close to fixation in a pattern that mimics the signature of selective  
41 sweeps (Edmonds et al. 2004). These results imply that traditional outlier  
42 methods based on allele frequency differentiation may be inappropriate to detect  
43 genetic signatures of local adaptation in species that underwent range expansion

44 in the past. Allele frequency differentiation tests indeed lack power to detect  
45 soft sweep signatures, and they are prone to high false positive rates in this  
46 situation (Teshima et al. 2006, Hermisson 2009).

47 A way to investigate signatures of local adaptation when selective alleles  
48 have weak phenotypic effects is by identifying loci with allele frequencies that  
49 exhibit high correlation with ecological variables (Joost et al. 2007, Hancock  
50 et al. 2008). Genome scan methods based on association of loci with ecological  
51 gradients assume that environmental factors vary throughout geographical  
52 space, and provide good proxies for unobserved selective pressures. Ecological  
53 association methods have performed well in simulation studies, often detecting  
54 adaptive loci when outlier allele frequency differentiation tests have failed, as in  
55 cases, for example, where selection varies geographically (De Mita et al. 2013),  
56 or when adaptive phenotypes evolve as polygenic traits (de Villemereuil et al.  
57 2014).

58 An unanswered question is whether ecological association methods are im-  
59 pacted by the shape and orientation of gradients used as proxies for selection.  
60 Answering this question is essential to the interpretation of ecological associa-  
61 tion tests and to the use of ecological predictors that would produce the smallest  
62 proportion of false positive associations. In this study we considered a fictive  
63 species in which adaptive allele frequency gradients correlate with the geograph-  
64 ical variation of some known environmental variables after the species expanded  
65 from its original range. For empirical examples, consider the evidence for genetic  
66 change associated with the ongoing range expansion of the bank vole (*Myodes*  
67 *glareolus*) in Ireland, or with the recent range expansion of the British butterfly

68 (*Aricia agestis*) in response to climate change (Buckley et al. 2012, White et  
69 al. 2013). Under the situation described above, we argue that the performance  
70 of genome scan methods based on associations with ecological gradients will de-  
71 pend on the orientation of the gradient relative to the expansion axis as well as  
72 the test used. We provide evidence of spurious association at selectively neutral  
73 alleles for some gradients, and show that the most favorable case is when the  
74 gradients align along the direction of expansion. These results provide guide-  
75 lines for researchers to analyze results when testing genetic data with ecological  
76 association methods.

## 77 **Ecological association methods identifying genomic** 78 **signatures of local adaptation**

79 Genome scans based on correlations of allele frequencies with ecological gradi-  
80 ents use multiple statistical tests to detect significant association at each locus.  
81 The list of loci showing associations with local environment are considered as  
82 candidate loci potentially targeted by selection. These associations are com-  
83 monly tested using regression models (Joost et al. 2007). For example, regres-  
84 sion models have been employed to identify ecologically relevant loci in humans  
85 (Hancock et al. 2008, Fumagalli et al. 2012, Frichot et al. 2013). Jones et  
86 al. (2012) used ecological correlation methods in their comparison of marine  
87 and freshwater sticklebacks to detect loci associated with habitat. Eckert et al.  
88 (2010) used regression methods to identify loci linked to climatic gradients in  
89 loblolly pines.

90 More specifically, statistical methods that evaluate the association of gene  
91 frequencies with ecological gradients can be classified into 3 main categories.

92 Some of these methods include corrections for confounding effects due to pop-  
93 ulation structure, whereas some others do not. The first category of methods  
94 tests for correlations using linear or logistic regression models or simple Man-  
95 tel tests (Joost et al. 2007). These methods are appropriate for continuous  
96 populations or populations interconnected by high rates of gene flow. In other  
97 contexts, these simple regression models generate large numbers of false positive  
98 associations (Schoville et al. 2012, De Mita et al. 2013, Frichot et al. 2013).

99 A second category of methods explicitly considers geographic structure in  
100 the data, and corrects for confounding effects created by shared demographic  
101 history and patterns of isolation by distance. Those models estimate the effect  
102 of the ecological variable on allele frequencies allowing for statistical dependence  
103 in residual terms. Interestingly, correction for confounding effects in ecological  
104 association methods relies on principles that are similar to phylogenetic compar-  
105 ative methods (Grafen 1989, Harvey & Pagel 1991). Phylogenetic comparative  
106 methods use information in phylogenetic trees to test for correlated evolutionary  
107 changes in two traits. In ecological association tests, confounding effects are cor-  
108 rected by introducing a known covariance matrix that models allele frequency  
109 dependencies. Evidence for local adaptation at a specific locus is then evaluated  
110 by testing a null model with this particular covariance structure. Our analogy  
111 with phylogenetic comparative methods postulates that background correlation  
112 in ecological association methods could be modeled on the basis of geographic  
113 or population genetic distance instead of phylogenetic distance (*cf.* Felsenstein  
114 2002).

115 For example, Poncet et al. (2010) used a generalized estimation equation

116 model which assumes a covariance matrix in which nearby individuals are ge-  
117 netically more similar than individuals located farther apart. Another approach  
118 estimates the empirical covariance of allele frequencies among populations and  
119 uses it as the null model (Coop et al. 2010). This approach was implemented  
120 in the computer program **BAYENV**, and uses the full covariance matrix of allele  
121 frequencies. The **BAYENV** model can be extended to consider low rank approxi-  
122 mations of the covariance matrix. It is then similar to using a regression model  
123 in which a fixed number of principal components of the data matrix are included  
124 as fixed effects in the model.

125 A third category of methods has been inspired by genome-wide association  
126 studies and mixed models (*e.g.* Yu et al. 2006, Frichot et al. 2013, Yoder et al.  
127 2014). Association between ecological gradients and allele frequencies are tested  
128 while estimating the effects of unobserved latent factors. In mixed models, the  
129 latent factors include background levels of population structure due to demo-  
130 graphic history or background genetic variation, and the fixed effects model the  
131 correlation between allele frequencies and the observed selection gradients. The  
132 mixed model approach implemented in the software **LFMM** 2.1 (Frichot et al.  
133 2013) proved to be among the most reliable approaches in a recent evaluation  
134 of several genome scan methods (de Villemereuil et al. 2014).

135 In this study we used **LFMM** in conjunction with two other ecological associ-  
136 ation tests based on regression methods to investigate the confounding effect of  
137 range expansions on our ability to identify genomic signatures of selection. The  
138 two methods used a linear regression model without correction, and a linear  
139 regression model in which a fixed number of principal components of the data

matrix are included as fixed effects. For linear regression methods, we used classical testing procedures based on  $z$ -scores and  $t$ -tests. Using **LFMM**, the number of latent factors,  $K$ , was chosen on the basis of the empirical distribution of locus-specific  $P$ -values after each program run. More specifically, we ran **LFMM** five times for each value of  $K$  with run-lengths of 10,000 cycles and burn-in periods of 5,000 cycles, and we combined the  $P$ -values and the  $z$ -scores resulting from each run using the Fisher-Stouffer method (Brown 1975). Following Devlin and Roeder (1999), we obtained a genomic inflation factor (GIF) after computing the median of the squared (combined)  $z$ -scores for each  $K$ , divided by the median of the  $\chi^2$  distribution with one degree of freedom. We selected the smallest value of  $K$  for which the GIF value dropped below 1, using it to correct the test  $P$ -values.

## Spatial simulation of neutral and adaptive allele frequencies

We considered a fictive species that underwent a range expansion 1,000 generations ago. For this species, we simulated a demographic model in which a rectangular area was colonized from a unique source population located south of the area, and we considered population samples from the whole species range at the end of colonization.

In our simulations, the main axis of expansion was oriented in the northward direction. We used the Haldane cline model to simulate geographic variation at adaptive loci based on ecological gradients (Haldane 1948; see below). A reference ecological gradient was defined to be parallel to the main axis of expansion. Then the axis of the reference gradient was rotated by angles of 11.25



degrees from the original position. We considered a total of 17 distinct angles ranging from -90 to +90 degrees. See Figure 1 for a representation of our simulation framework. An angle of 0 degree represented a selection gradient parallel to the main axis of expansion. We simulated independent genetic variation at 4,900 neutral and at 100 adaptive single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Our simulated data sets contained low percentages of true associations with ecological gradients (2%). We also simulated SNP data using 4,500 neutral and 500 adaptive loci.

Data sets consisting of selectively neutral multi-locus genotypes were created using the computer program **SPLATCHE** (Currat et al. 2004). Range expansion scenarios were implemented using non-equilibrium stepping-stone models based on a regular array of 165 demes organized in a rectangle of size 11-by-15. a rectangular area was colonized from a unique source located south of the area (Figure 1). For each deme, the migration rate was equal to  $m = .4$ , the expansion rate was equal to  $r = .4$ , and the carrying capacity was equal to  $C = 100$ . The “density overflow” option was used to spread the source population over  $\approx 8$  demes.

Four genotypes were sampled from each of the 165 demes for a total number of 660 genotypes. To create associations between loci and ecological gradients, we linked allele frequencies to ecological gradients by using Haldane’s transform (Haldane 1948). The Haldane transform simulates a geographic trend, *i.e.*, continuous variation through geographic space, that reproduces clinal allele frequency patterns as expected under spatially varying selection intensities. In addition, we used a model of correlated residuals that generates the same

background population genetic structure at adaptive loci as observed at neutral loci. To implement it, we introduced residual errors based on the empirical covariance matrix of the neutral loci (Coop et al. 2010). The shape parameter for Haldane’s clines was set to mimic weak selection, not easily detectable using classical population differentiation methods. To check this, we computed the first axis of a principal component analysis for a typical set of neutral SNPs (Figure S1A). This axis clearly separated populations defined at the right and left of the expansion axis. For all data sets, we computed the empirical distributions of  $F_{ST}$  for populations defined at the right and left of the expansion axis. Running tests with statistical power greater than 80%, we found that the false discovery rate for adaptive loci was greater than 62% in all simulations. Figure S1B displays the map of a selection gradient obtained by rotation of 45 degrees from the reference axis, and Figure S1C displays the map of a selection gradient collinear to the direction of expansion.

~~Our approach modeled population structure at loci lacking or with weak association to environmental gradients in a way that reproduced the demographic model accurately.~~

In summary, adaptive loci were simulated so that the geographic distribution of the derived allele frequency correlated with the geographic distribution of the observed ecological gradient. Thus we modeled a situation in which allele frequencies at adaptive loci are truly associated with the observed ecological gradient and exhibit background population structure similar to allele frequencies at neutral loci.

## 211 The orientation of ecological gradients impacts 212 the identification of adaptive loci

213 To demonstrate universal properties of methods rather than showing differences  
214 in their relative performances, we focused on three methods that can be consid-  
215 ered representative of ecological association tests. Our first method was based  
216 on a simple linear regression model, our second method used a linear model  
217 including correction for population structure based on the first principal com-  
218 ponent of the genotypic matrix, and our third method was based on latent factor  
219 mixed models.

220 Based on simulated data, we computed a false discovery rate (FDR) for the  
221 three association tests and for 17 distinct orientations of ecological gradients.  
222 For each simulation, the FDR was computed as the number of times that a  
223 positive test detected a selectively neutral locus. We used Bonferroni correction  
224 for multiple testing at a nominal type I error of 1%. For all ecological association  
225 methods, we found that all test performances were influenced by the angle  
226 between the selection gradient and the main axis of range expansion (Figure 2).

227 When we applied linear regression models and used Bonferroni correction,  
228 the FDR remained greater than 60% for all orientations of the ecological gradi-  
229 ents (orange curve in Figure 2, ~~Figure 3~~). For standard regression models, the  
230 excess of extreme  $P$ -values could be explained by the test not being correctly  
231 calibrated (see Figure S2). Including a correction for population structure did  
232 not improve the performances of linear regression methods. In contrast, in-  
233 creasing the cut-off threshold for multiple testing correction to  $-\log_{10} P > 20$   
234 or correcting for genomic inflation using the GIF improved the performances of

the regression models substantially (red curve in Figure 2). Using an increased cut-off threshold, the FDR curve exhibited a minimum at angular values close to zero, and the FDR was around 20% for those values (Figure 2, red curve). These results show that some gradient orientations are more favorable for detecting adaptive loci than other orientations. The most favorable case clearly occurs when selection gradients align with the main direction of range expansion. In more specific terms, this occurs when the orientation of the main axis of neutral genetic variation – as described by the first principal component of the neutral genotypic matrix – is perpendicular to the environmental predictor (François et al. 2010, Arenas et al. 2013, DeGiorgio and Rosenberg 2013). Ecological association methods perform well if they reduce the confounding effect created by population structure by capturing a significant proportion of genetic variation at neutral alleles in the residual error of the regression model.

Latent factor mixed models provide a general approach to correct for the undesired effect of population structure in ecological association methods (Frichot et al. 2013). In our simulations the number of hidden factors was chosen in order to make the distribution of  $P$ -values closest to a uniform distribution. We found that this value was around  $K = 8$ , consistent with the number of clusters detected by Bayesian clustering programs **STRUCTURE** and **TESS** (Pritchard et al. 2000, Chen et al. 2007). For this value of the number of factors, the performance of LFMM was expected to be superior to those of classic regression models whatever the orientation of the selection gradient. The FDR curve confirmed this expectation (Figure 2). Consistently with other regression models, the most favorable case happened when selection gradients aligned along the

259 direction of range expansion. Our explanation is that nominal error rates are  
260 better calibrated when selection gradients are parallel to the axis of expansion  
261 than in other orientations.

262       Extending our results to other methods, we observed that logistic regression  
263 models led to results very similar to those of linear regression models. While we  
264 reported results for models including the first principal component of the geno-  
265 typic matrix, we observed that including more components led to qualitatively  
266 equivalent results. We did not use BAYENV because of high run-to-run variabil-  
267 ity. This inherent variability makes conclusions about genome-wide patterns of  
268 adaptation more difficult than for other methods (Blair et al. 2014). Since the  
269 BAYENV approach is similar to a logistic regression method including correction  
270 for population structure, the same behavior is expected for BAYENV as for the  
271 other methods investigated here.

272       To investigate the power of ecological association tests under various orien-  
273 tations of ecological gradients, we applied the Benjamini-Hochberg algorithm to  
274 control the FDR at level  $q = 10\%$  for all methods. For each data set, we evalu-  
275 ated the sensitivity of tests as the proportion of loci with positive tests among  
276 adaptive loci. Sensitivity was generally high for linear regression methods, but  
277 the observed FDR reached values greater than 90% for those tests (e.g., Figure  
278 3A and Figure 3B that shows excessively large numbers of neutral loci with  $P$ -  
279 values above the threshold). In contrast, the testing procedure based on latent  
280 factor models provided reasonable control of the FDR using the Benjamini-  
281 Hochberg algorithm. Note that the increased performance of LFMM resulted  
282 from the use of GIF corrections combined with the meta-analysis of multiple

runs, which is computationally more intensive than running simple regression models. For data sets containing 100 adaptive loci, the observed FDR ranged between 5% and 35% (10% expected, Figure 4A). For data sets containing 500 adaptive loci, the observed FDR ranged between 3% and 23% (Figure 4B). Using LFMM, the observed FDR was closer to its expected value when ecological gradients aligned along the direction of range expansion than along any other directions. The test power reached values greater than 75%, and it increased when ecological gradients aligned along the direction of range expansion. Power was less than 60% when ecological gradients were approximately perpendicular to the direction of range expansion (Figure 4).

## Discussion

Range expansions following climatic or other environmental changes are commonly associated with adaptive changes within migrant species genomes. This happens frequently in cases of species invasions (Kirk et al. 2013), postglacial recolonization (Hewitt 1999), and even in crop or animal domestication (Doebley et al. 2006). Researchers can investigate these changes by applying genome scan methods based on association with ecological gradients (Joost et al. 2007, Hancock et al. 2008, Jay et al. 2012). Here we provide new insights into the use of ecological association methods when species have expanded their spatial range. Our simulation study addressed the intuitive idea that the orientation of allele frequency gradients in geographic space could reveal signatures of natural selection (e.g., Fix 1996). If allele frequency gradients perpendicular to the axis of expansion can be linked to neutral population structure, allele frequency gra-

306 dients that align along the direction of expansion could be linked to selection.  
307 We found that ecological association approaches are useful ways to formalize  
308 these conceptual ideas.

309 Using spatially explicit simulations, our first result was that association tests  
310 are sensitive to the orientation of ecological gradients relative to the main axis  
311 of expansion. We found that the angle made by the axis of expansion and the  
312 axis of selection had a strong influence on the FDR (and power) of ecological  
313 association tests. Even for the best method, we observed up to 35% FDR in  
314 unfavorable cases. While we kept the origin of expansion fixed and modified  
315 the direction of selection gradients, our approach also applies to the symmetric  
316 case where a fixed ecological gradient is considered and the geographic origin  
317 of expansion is modified. Our second result is that the list of candidate genes  
318 obtained from association methods contained fewer false associations when the  
319 test variables exhibited geographic gradients that paralleled the direction of  
320 expansion than in other directions. Though the performance of methods could  
321 differ significantly, all association tests exhibited better performance when the  
322 selection gradient was parallel to the axis of expansion. When this gradient was  
323 orthogonal to the axis of expansion, the FDR increased in all methods.

324 The reason for the lower rates of false positives in the case of a North-South  
325 ecological gradient was that population genetic structure was organized West-  
326 East. Under population genetic models of range expansion and a broad set  
327 of conditions, the gradient of principal component maps are oriented along a  
328 direction perpendicular to the axis of the expansion, rather than parallel to  
329 expansion (François et al. 2010, De Giorgio and Rosenberg 2013). This pattern

330 is an outcome of the “allele surfing” phenomenon, which creates patches of  
331 high allele-frequency differentiation that align perpendicular to the direction  
332 of the expansion, and complicates the detection of selection when ecological  
333 gradients do not align with the expansion axis. Francois et al (2010) suggest  
334 that the results presented here will be valid for geometries more complex than  
335 a rectangular array, for example, range expansions in the European continent.  
336 They also suggest that admixture events have an impact on test performances.  
337 De Giorgio and Rosenberg (2013) provided evidence that population sampling  
338 can modify principal component analysis, which impacts the power and FDR of  
339 tests. While the allele surfing phenomenon may strongly bias allele-frequency  
340 differentiation tests, we observed that the undesired effects can be corrected  
341 when we sample throughout the whole species range and test gradients that are  
342 perpendicular to the first principal axis of neutral variation.

343 The most likely explanation for the high FDRs observed in linear regression  
344 models is that those methods use an incorrect model to test the null hypothe-  
345 sis. In the linear model, residual errors are considered statistically independent  
346 of each other ignoring population genetic structure shaped by range expansion  
347 (Figure 3, Figure S2). Using corrections based on principal components im-  
348 proved the FDR only slightly, and the results were qualitatively similar to those  
349 of linear regression methods. We also observed that increasing the number  
350 of principal components reduced the power to reject the null hypothesis (not  
351 reported).

352 The FDR of linear regression methods decreased substantially when an ultra-  
353 conservative cut-off threshold defined the test significance level. Again, we found



354 that conservative tests exhibited better performances when ecological gradients  
355 paralleled the expansion axis. Because the calibration of  $P$ -values based on  
356 linear models is usually incorrect, researchers must be cautious about interpre-  
357 tations of the candidate locus list. In addition they must be aware that their  
358 results come without any control of the FDR.

359 Latent factor mixed linear models were associated with much lower levels of  
360 FDR than simple linear regression models and models using correction based  
361 on principal components. Instead of principal components, LFMM uses unknown  
362 factors in addition to the fixed environmental effects. The LFMM algorithm esti-  
363 mates the unknown factors from the data at the same time as it estimates the  
364 effect of ecological variables. Choosing the number of factors according to the  
365 flatness of the  $P$ -values histogram, as measured by the genomic inflation factor,  
366 provides assurance that association tests were correctly calibrated, and models  
367 of background variation (or correlated residual errors) remained at acceptable  
368 levels. An important advantage of this choice procedure is to allow researchers  
369 to analyze ranked lists of loci while they control the FDR using classical proce-  
370 dures (Benjamini & Hochberg 1995). Greater power will be found in ecological  
371 gradients that parallel the axis of expansion, and fewer false discoveries will be  
372 done in data sets where the number of adaptive loci is high compared to the  
373 number of neutral loci.

374 Recent simulation studies have evaluated the sensitivity and specificity of  
375 genome scans for selection, and compared ecological association methods to  
376 methods based on allele frequency differentiation (De Mita et al. 2013, de  
377 Villemereuil et al. 2014). These simulation studies have shown that ecological

378 methods have higher power to detect adaptive genetic variation than outlier-  
379 based methods when adaptive traits are influenced by several genes and when  
380 population structure is hierarchical (de Villemereuil et al. 2014). Our study con-  
381 firmed that ecological association methods could detect adaptive genetic varia-  
382 tion when populations have undergone range expansion, and have high power  
383 to detect adaptive genetic variation when expansion and ecological gradients  
384 follow the same direction.

385       Following our observations, we encourage researchers to use ecological as-  
386 sociation methods when screening genomes for local adaptation in spatially  
387 expanding populations. For example, ecological gradients that align along the  
388 axis of expansion occur for species that colonized Europe following the most  
389 recent glacial period (Hewitt 2000). More generally, our results are particularly  
390 relevant to global change scenarios where species track their ecological niche  
391 during range expansion while adapting to changing environments at their rear  
392 edge (Jump & Penuelas 2005). In this case, researchers using ecological associa-  
393 tion approaches should be aware that detecting genomic signature of adaptation  
394 can be facilitated when gradients align along the main axis of expansion.

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## 528 **Figure legends**

529 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of evolutionary scenarios. Populations  
530 (demes) are represented by a regular array of dots, the larger ones indicating  
531 the origin of expansion. The main direction of expansion is shown by black  
532 arrow (solid line), the circular wave front is shown by an orange circle. The  
533 main axis of the ecological gradient is shown by a green arrow (dashed line)  
534 which angle varies from -90 degrees to +90 degrees.

535 **Figure 2.** False discovery rate (FDR) for ecological association tests. Values of  
536 the FDR as a function of the orientation of ecological gradients relative to the  
537 main axis of range expansion. We used 17 angle values varying from -90 degrees  
538 to +90 degrees and three association tests: simple linear regression, principal  
539 component regression using the first PC of the genotypic matrix and a latent  
540 factor model using  $K = 8$  latent factors.

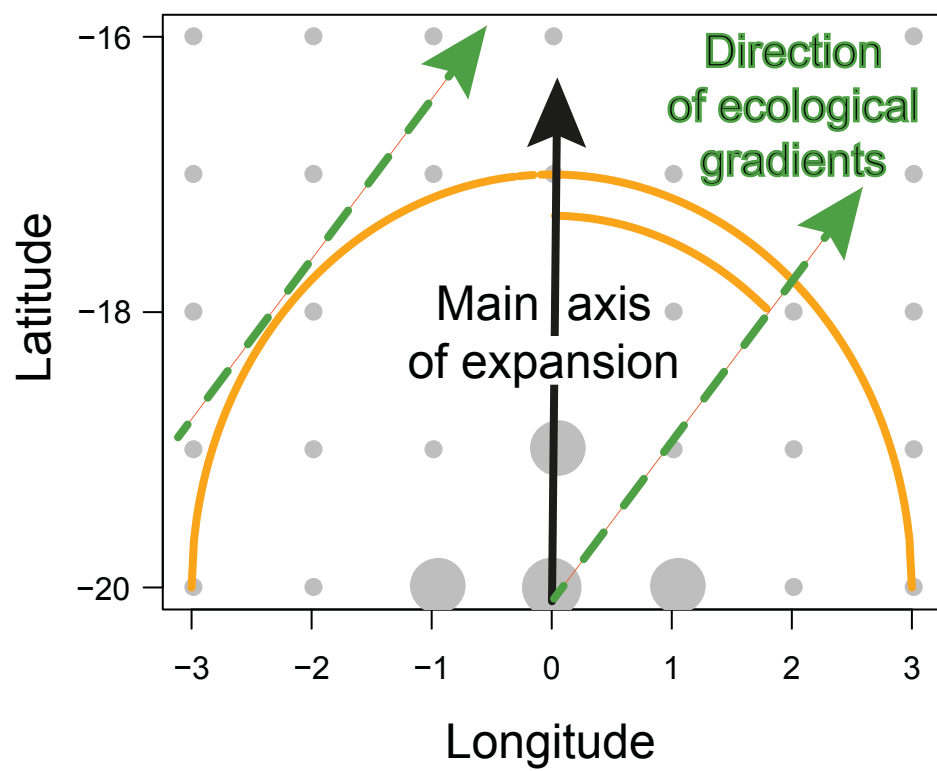
541 **Figure 3.** Manhattan plot for linear model association tests under two distinct  
542 angles of selection gradient (0 and 90 degrees). Graphical representation of  
543 minus  $\log_{10}$   $P$ -values of linear regression tests at each locus. The horizontal line  
544 represents the value of the Bonferroni correction threshold.  $P$ -values for A)  
545 ecological gradients perpendicular to the direction of expansion and B) parallel  
546 to the direction of expansion.

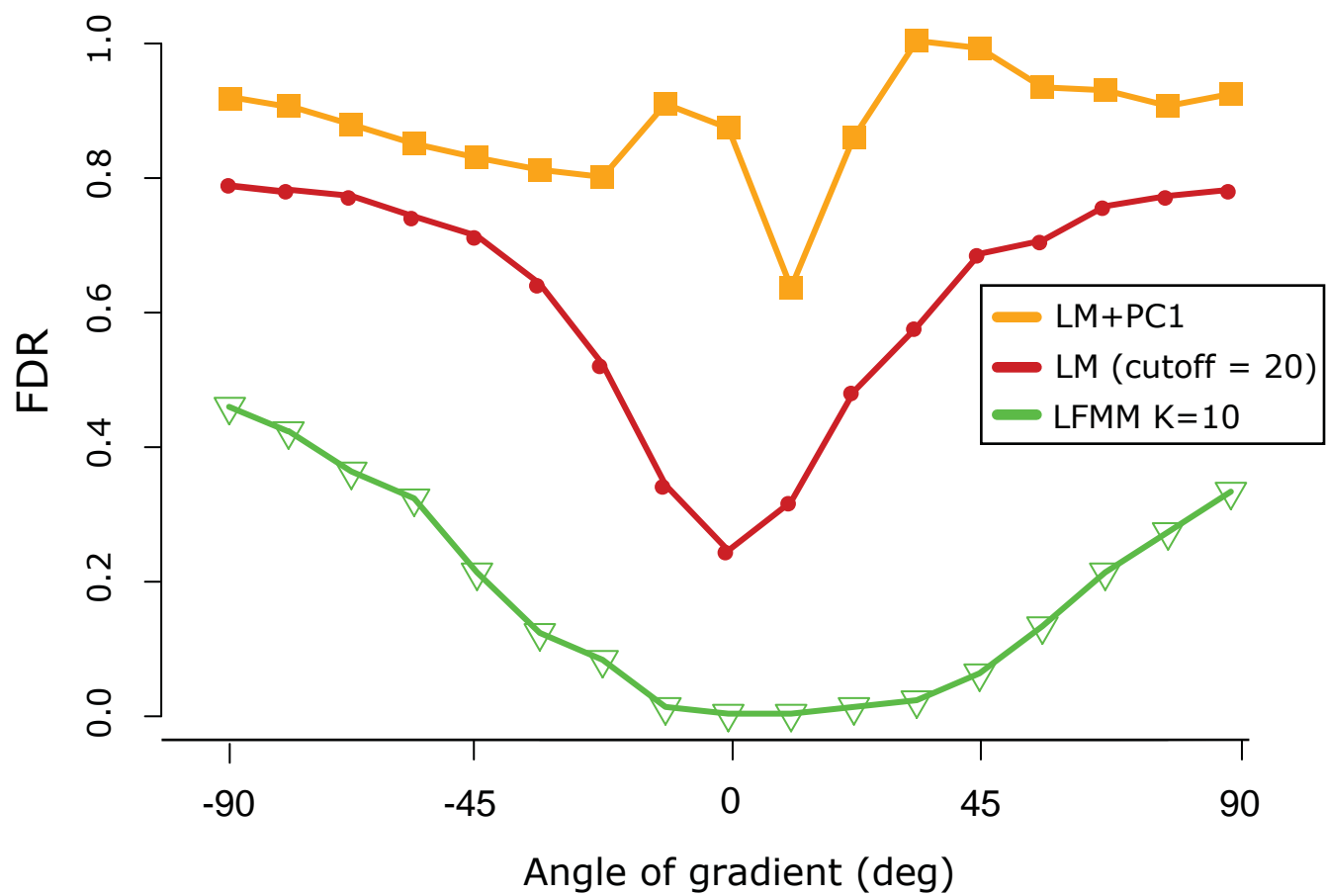
547 **Figure 4.** False discovery rate (FDR) – Power plot for LFMM tests and 17

548 distinct orientations of ecological gradients. Each data set is represented by an  
 549 arrow displaying the direction of the ecological gradient in the simulated data.  
 550 Vertical arrows indicate that the ecological gradient aligns along the direction  
 551 of expansion. The expected FDR,  $q = 10\%$ , is shown by a vertical line. Each  
 552 arrow position corresponds to the sensitivity (power) of tests and the percentage  
 553 of false discoveries in the lists of loci obtained with the Benjamini-Hochberg  
 554 algorithm. A) 100 adaptive loci, B) 500 adaptive loci. Five runs and  $K = 8$   
 555 factors were used in LFMM.

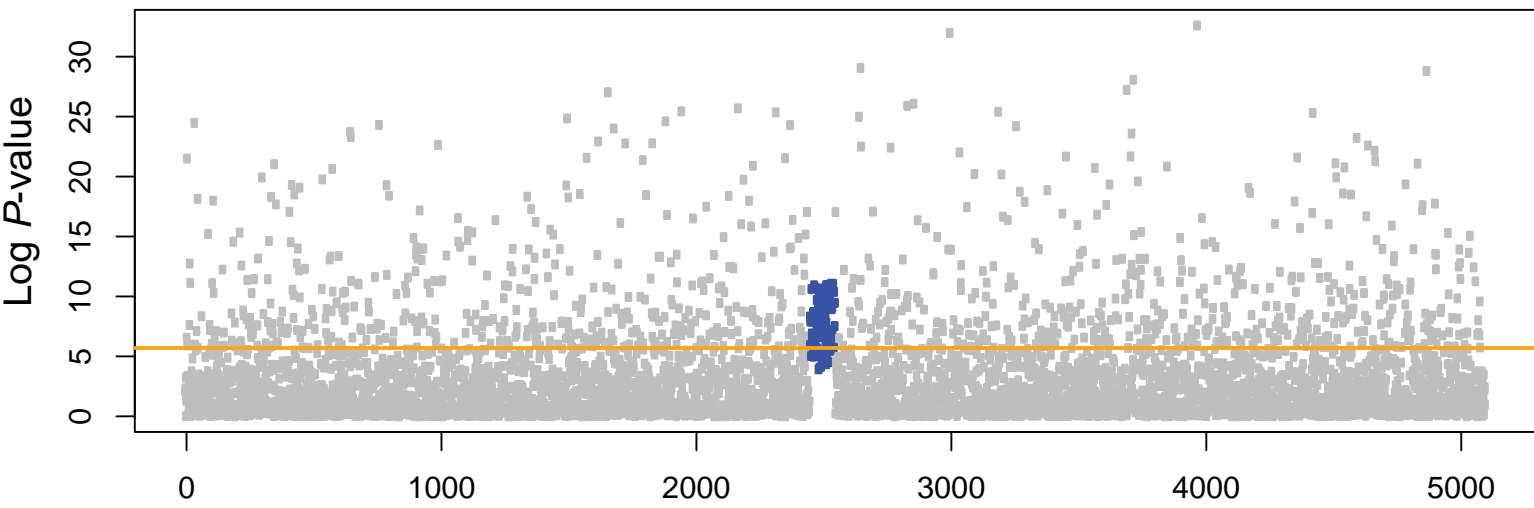
556 **Figure S1.** Neutral genetic variation and ecological gradients in simula-  
 557 tions scenarios. A) Principal component analysis: Map of the first principal  
 558 component of neutral genetic variation. The axis of expansion is indicated by  
 559 a vertical arrow (solid line). B) Map of selection gradient. The direction of  
 560 selection gradient forms an angle of 45 degrees with the direction of expansion  
 561 (dashed line). C) Second example of a map of selection gradient. The selec-  
 562 tion gradient aligns to the direction of expansion (angle of 0 degree), and it is  
 563 perpendicular to the first axis of genetic variation.

564 **Figure S2.** Empirical distribution of  $P$ -values for the linear model and for  
 565 latent factor mixed models. Data simulated for ecological gradients that align  
 566 to the direction of expansion ( $K = 8$  factors were used in LFMM).





A



B

